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met with is that of Eastern and North-eastern Canada. Curiously enough Prince Edward Island and Sydney (Nova Scotia) correspond very closely to the (–) type, if allowance be made for the differences about the year 1877.

The inverted curve for the latter with the Adelaide (Australia) pressure curve for comparison is shown in an accompanying plate (Plate [8]).

In addition to illustrating this reversal between Adelaide (+) and Sydney (Nova Scotia) (– ?), this plate shows also, to serve as examples, curves for two other sets of reverse pressure conditions. Thus, Bombay (+) is compared with the Cordoba (–) pressure curve (inverted), and is an example of the adopted types of pressure variation. Iceland is compared with that of the Azores (inverted), and shows the reverse conditions that prevail between a (+ ?) type and a (– ?) type.

A fact to which attention was very often drawn in attempting to classify the pressure curves was that some curves after following very closely for many years the Cordoba (–) or Indian (+) type of pressure, as the case may be, would revert back to the opposite type for a period of years. Thus to take the case of one station alone, namely, Sydney (Nova Scotia) as an instance, the pressure curve follows very closely that of India from 1875—1882, after which up to 1890 it has a very close resemblance to the Cordoba type. The behaviour of this Sydney (Nova Scotia) pressure curve can be compared with the Adelaide (Australia) curve in Plate [8], but it must be noticed that the former has here been *inverted*.

There is another important fact which this study has brought to light and which plays most probably an important *rôle* with regard to the pressure variations at places which exhibit a mixed type of pressure. The earth's surface as has been shown may be divided mainly into two regions, one portion showing excess pressures at certain epochs, while the other shows deficient pressure at the same epochs. If the former region exhibits a greater excess than usual (as an example, the Indian region in 1877), then the region over which this type of pressure occurs may probably be more extensive, and the boundary dividing the two chief types of pressure will necessarily be pushed away from this region. Stations, therefore, that were just on the fringe of this boundary may at these epochs become enveloped in this more extensive high-pressure area, and will exhibit the Indian type of pressure variation.

Should the Cordoba region become more extensive than usual owing to a similar cause, then the border stations will assume the Cordoba type of pressure variation. It is not proposed to enter here into detail on this point, as the subject requires very close examination, but mention may be made of the very great area which

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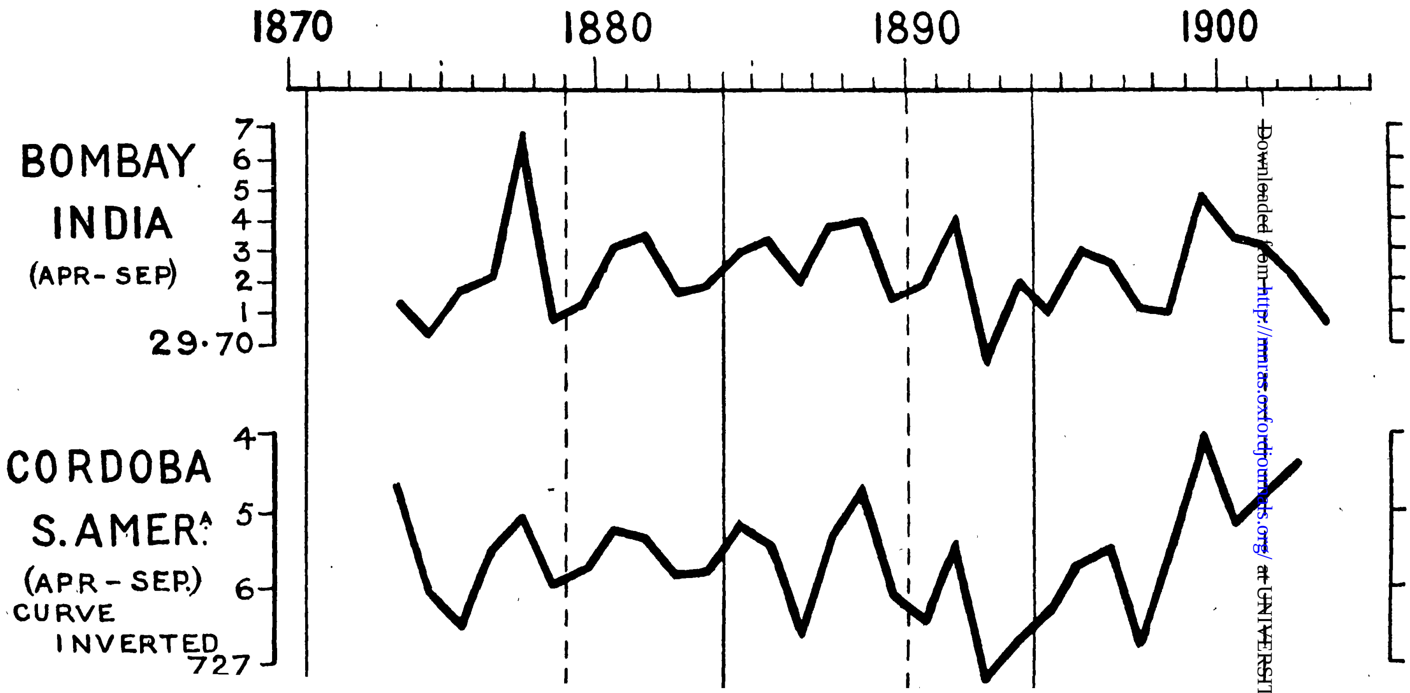

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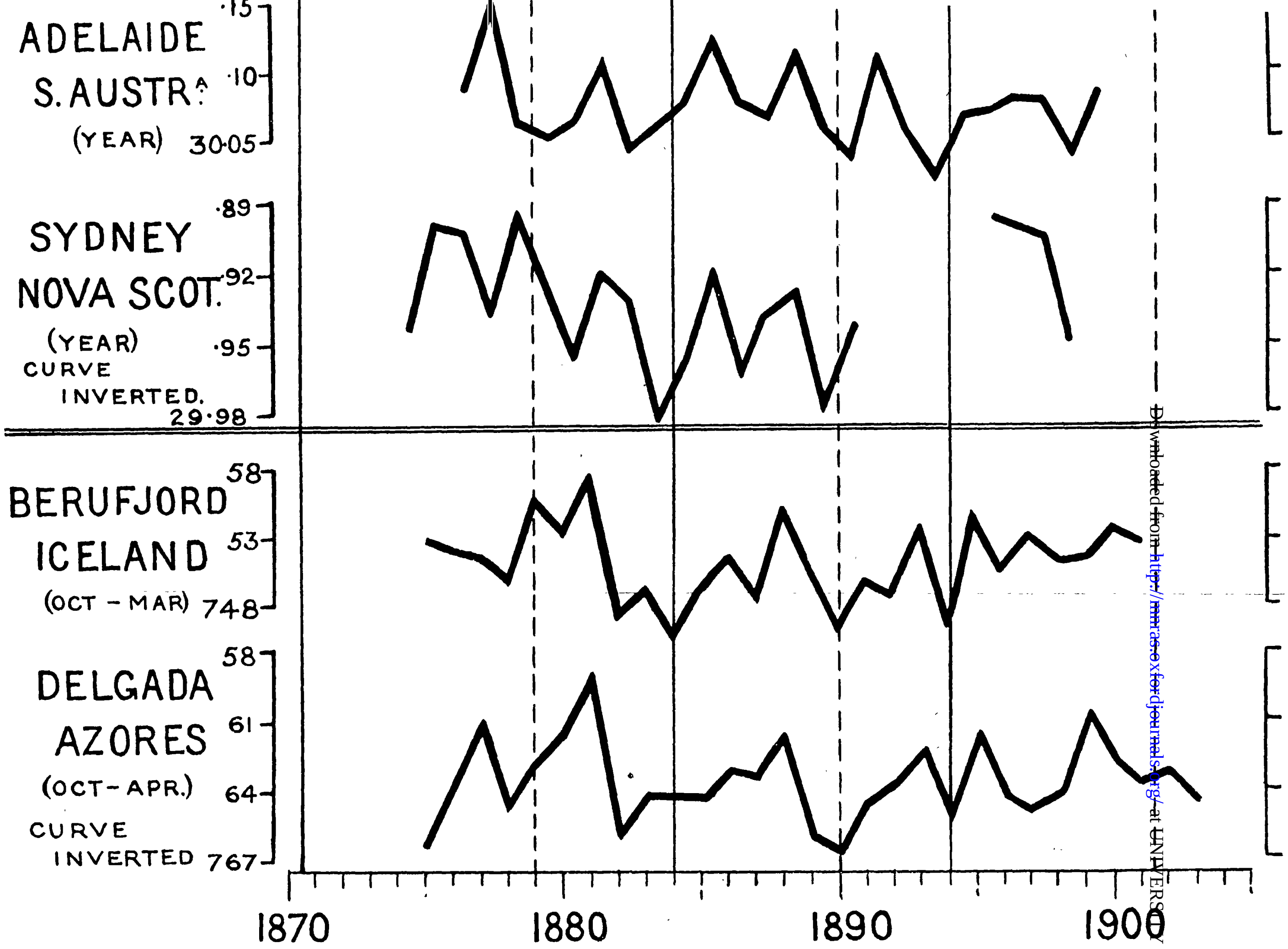

PLATE [8].—Three pairs of Curves to illustrate Reverse Pressure, Conditions at stations widely separated geographically, such as India and Cordoba (S. America), Adelaide (S. Australia) and Sydney (Nova Scotia), and at two stations near each other, as Berufjord (Iceland) and Delgada (Azores). In each case the second curve has been reversed. *Note.*—Vertical lines same as in Plate [7].

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was covered by the continuous excessive high pressure that prevailed over the Indian region from the end of 1876 to about the middle of 1878.

On fig. 1 is given a map of the world on which are marked the types of pressure variations in each region which is included in this barometric survey.

An attempt has been made by means of a neutral line to show approximately the mean lines of separation of these two chief pressure types, although it must be remembered that this line is liable to a probable small oscillation about its mean position.

As far as can at present be determined, one line commencing to the west of Alaska, separating this region from Siberia, passes easterly along about the 60° parallel of latitude and runs in a south-easterly direction between South-west Greenland and North-east Canada. It then crosses the North Atlantic, passing to the north of the Azores, and skirts the south-western portion of Portugal. It then strikes down towards the Equator, cutting North-west Africa, as far as can be judged from the scant pressure values available, through the middle of the Sahara. It leaves Africa near the Gold Coast, passes into the South Atlantic, where it cannot be traced further owing to lack of observations in this southern ocean.

The other boundary or neutral line passes to the north-east of Greenland and north of Iceland, crosses the southern portion of Norway and Sweden, and traverses Southern European Russia. It then takes a course somewhat more easterly, skirting the northern part of the Caspian Sea and Turkestan, passes between Tibet and Mongolia, and through China. It then leaves the Continent a little to the south of the Yellow Sea, and passes into the North Pacific Ocean. Here its path cannot be traced, but it evidently passes well to the east of the Philippine Islands and Solomon Islands, takes a new south-westerly course, skirting the eastern side of Australia and passing between Tasmania and New Zealand. Its track is then again lost in the Southern Pacific Ocean.

Although too much weight must not at present be given to the positions of these neutral lines throughout their whole length, it is interesting to note that they are fairly symmetrical to one another, although no attempt has been made to make them so.

Both lines apparently cross the equator at about antipodal points, and both appear to have a similar trend in northern and southern latitudes.

We seem then to be in presence of a general law relating to the pressures which occur simultaneously in two different regions of the globe, separated and defined more or less by a neutral line, this neutral line forming a fulcrum about which see-saws of pressure from one region to another take place. Special cases of such reverse pressure variations have been previously detected.

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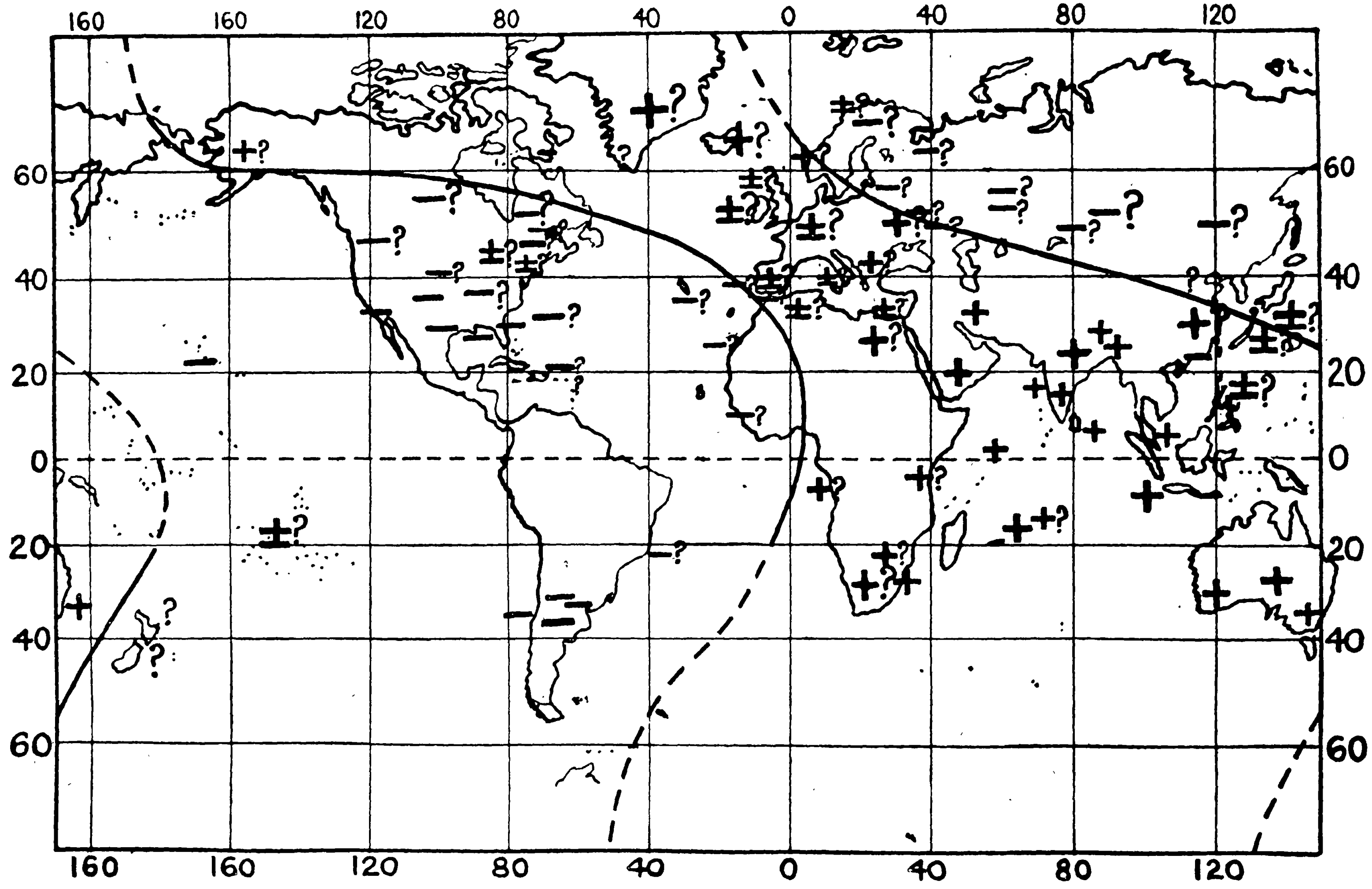

Fig. 1.—Illustrating the Distribution of the two Main Types of Atmospheric Pressure Variations. The symbols signify:—(+) like India, (+ ?) more like India than Cordoba, (−) like Cordoba, (− ?) more like Cordoba than India, (± ?) mixture of India and Cordoba, (?), difficult to classify.

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Thus as long ago as 1879 Blanford,* from a discussion of the secular variations of barometric pressure over the wide area covering Siberia, Indo-Malaysia and Australia, pointed out that there existed a kind of long-period see-saw of a character that, while the pressure at the tropical stations was low, that in Siberia was high, and *vice versâ*. This fact, it will be seen, is quite in harmony with the pressure-type distribution, as shown in the accompanying map (fig. 1).

Hildebrandsson† has discussed the relation between the pressure variations of numerous places mainly situated in the chief centres of action of the atmosphere widely distributed on the earth's surface for the period 1874—1884. In this valuable communication, some of the chief results which he was led to deduce were that there were several regions which exhibited opposite types of pressure variations.

The following places are those to which he calls attention, and for comparison we give the types in brackets which have been allotted according to the method adopted in the present paper; where no type is added the region has not been examined :—

The Azores (– ?) and Iceland (+ ?); Siberia (– ?) and Alaska (+ ?), especially in winter; Tahiti (± ?) and Tierra del Fuego; India (+) and Siberia (– ?); Greenland (+ ?) and Key West (Florida) (–); Buenos-Ayres (– ?) and Sydney (Australia) (+).

It is interesting to note that these results agree well in the main with the present distribution of the regions which have been examined.

Again Hann‡ has recently drawn attention to the fact that there exists a see-saw between the Azores and Iceland, and he showed that in 80 per cent. of cases the largest positive pressure variations at Stykkisholm (Iceland), corresponded to negative pressure variations at Ponta Delgada (Azores), and that the largest negative pressure variations at Stykkisholm were in 87 per cent. of cases positive variations at Ponta Delgada.

This result obtained from the observations extending from 1846—1900 endorses Hildebrandsson's previous conclusion deduced from observations over the period 1874—1884, and confirms the position of the neutral line shown on fig. 1, dividing the two large types of pressure areas.

Quite recently Professor Bigelow§ has published a map of the world on which he has indicated the distribution of the pressure types according as they follow the Indian (or direct type, as he calls it) or the Cordoba (indirect) pressure variations.

Professor Bigelow has also found that there are many regions in

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* 'Report of the Meteorology of India in 1878,' pp. 2—35.

† "Quelques Recherches sur les Centres d'Action de l'Atmosphère," 'Kongl. Svenska Velenskaps-Akad. Handlingar,' vol. 29, No. 3.

‡ 'Kaiserliche Akademie der Wiss. in Wien,' January 7, 1904.

§ 'Monthly Weather Review,' p. 509, November, 1903.

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which it is very difficult to say exactly which type is followed, and as he says there may be "differences of opinion as to the assignment of some of these curves, but the reader can make any different arrangement that he prefers."

In most of the main features, however, his map suggests a somewhat similar distribution of these pressure types to that given here. Thus, he finds that "the region around the Indian Ocean gives direct synchronism, South America and North America give inverse synchronism, while Europe and Siberia give an indifferent type. Greenland and Iceland seem to have direct type like the Indian Ocean . . . .

"The eastern hemisphere tends to direct synchronism, except in Europe and Russia where the indifferent type prevails, and the western hemisphere to the inverse type."

It may be further pointed out that regions which are the reverse of one another as regards these secular pressure variations should very probably experience opposite kinds of abnormal weather, while those over which the same type of pressure variation exists should have weather of an abnormal but similar nature.

That this is inclined to be so as regards the latter statement has been recently* very forcibly pointed out by Sir John Eliot with respect to the Indian area. He writes:—

"The drought of 1895—1902 was a more or less general meteorological feature of the whole area, including Abyssinia, East and South Africa, Afghanistan, India, probably Tibet, and the greater part or whole of Australia."

The whole of this region, as will be seen from the accompanying map (fig. 1), is embraced by the (+) type of pressure.

In the light, therefore, of the existence of these large regions of opposite pressure types, it is vital in the interest of long-period forecasting that observations from all portions of the globe should be included in any discussion.

Several years ago Eliot† drew attention to these oscillations of pressure of long period, other than the diurnal and annual oscillations in India. In this important memoir he pointed out that "they are directly related to the largest and most important features of the weather in India, viz., the character and distribution of the precipitation of rain and snow in the Indian monsoon area."

There is reason, therefore, to believe that this short period pressure variation will in the future be of considerable assistance in helping

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* 'Broad Views,' p. 193; 'The Meteorology of the Empire during the Unique Period 1892—1902,' by Sir John Eliot, K.C.I.E., F R.S.

† "A Preliminary Discussion of certain Oscillatory Changes of Pressure of Long Period and of Short Period in India," 'Indian Met. Memoirs,' vol. 6, part 2, 1895.

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meteorologists to form a more definite idea of the prospects of approaching seasons.

We wish to express our thanks to Dr. W. N. Shaw, F.R.S., who has kindly assisted the work by permitting us to utilise the valuable collection of pressure data deposited in the archives of the Meteorological Office.

We also owe a debt of gratitude to Messrs. W. Moss and T. F. Connolly, who have shown great zeal in completing the necessary computations and drawing the numerous curves which were required for the different stations that have been investigated.

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"On the Electric Equilibrium of the Sun." By SVANTE ARRHENIUS. Communicated by Sir WILLIAM HUGGINS, Pres. R.S. Received and read June 2, 1904.

In recent years many attempts have been made to apply the pressure of radiation, that is a consequence of the theories of Maxwell and Bartoli, to the explanation of cosmical phenomena. Especially the enigma of the nature of comets' tails has been elucidated from this new point of view.

In a memoir presented to the Swedish Academy of Sciences in 1899, I pointed out that several electric and magnetic phenomena, especially auroras and magnetic storms, might also be connected with the pressure of radiation. C. T. R. Wilson found that the negative ions condense vapours more easily than do positive ions. Without doubt the gases in the atmosphere of the sun are practically ionised by the ultra-violet radiation. Therefore we have to suppose, that among the little drops formed by condensation in the sun's atmosphere far more are negatively charged than are positively charged. As these drops are driven away by the pressure of radiation they charge with negative electricity the atmospheres of celestial bodies, *e.g.*, the earth, which they meet, till the charge is so great that discharges occur, and cathode rays are formed, which carry the charge back to the universe.

A calculation of the speed, with which these particles move through space, will not be without interest. Suppose first, for simplicity, that the pressure of radiation is double that of the weight of the particles in the neighbourhood of the sun. It is not difficult to calculate, that in this case the time, necessary for the particle's passage from the surface of the sun to the earth, amounts to 68·7 hours. The specific weight is supposed to be that of water.

Now, after Schwarzschild's calculations, a perfectly reflecting drop